



The following table lists the 100 most important places in the world.





BLUCHER'S FALL AT LIGNY

(The Prussians Are Defeated by Napoleon in His Last Flash of Victory)

From a painting by the contemporary German artist, P. F. Messerschmidt

FROM its dream of returning peace, Germany was suddenly and startlingly aroused by the return of Napoleon from Elba. Once more the Frenchmen flocked around him, and the work of conquering a peace had to be begun all over again. Once more it was Prussia that bore the brunt of the attack. Her troops under the indomitable Blucher were the first to take the field. England hurried to her aid; and the English under Wellington and the Germans under Blucher faced Napoleon in that last great series of his battles, which culminated at Waterloo. While one of his marshals held the English in check, the French Emperor himself with the main body of his troops attacked Blucher at Ligny.

Blucher was defeated. His horse was shot, and he lay half crushed beneath it while the French cavalry rode over him. But fortunately for Germany the French did not recognize him, and he escaped. Once more he refused to stay defeated. Despite all his suffering of body and of soul, this grim old veteran of seventy years rose from his overthrow, rallied his troops, reorganized them on that same night of their defeat, and was ready for battle again upon the morrow. Napoleon, thinking the Prussians were almost crushed, left only a much smaller army to watch them, and turned with his main force to crush the English at Waterloo.







BLUCHER'S MOMENT OF REVENGE

(The Sword and Treasure of the Defeated Napoleon Brought to Blucher After Waterloo)

From the painting by R. Eichstadt, a contemporary German artist

WE all know the story of Waterloo. Wellington had not been able on the previous day to help Blucher; but now he looked to Blucher to help him. All day long he resisted the attacks of the French, who slowly wore down his strength until he prayed for "night or Blucher." And Blucher came. Evading the army meant to hold him back, the energetic Prussian led his troops by a long, circuitous, terribly difficult route, till late in the afternoon they reached the flank of Napoleon's army, and charged. Napoleon was utterly astounded. The exhausted French troops crumpled up like paper and were swept from the field. English and Prussians bore down upon them together. But the men who continued the pursuit until the French army broke and disappeared in utter rout were not the English, who had stood still on the defensive all day, but the Prussians who had already fought so much and marched so far.

That terribly persistent Blucher directed the pursuit in person, thought so injured by his fall from his horse that he could not stand upon his feet. Napoleon was almost captured. His royal carriage was seized, with all his imperial insignia, his jewels, and his hat and sword. These, as our illustration shows, were brought to Blucher as he sat at breakfast the next morning. All the power of the great French Emperor was gone at last—and forever.







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THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

The celebrated Ambassador of Saxony at the Congress of Vienna, 1814-1815.

By the Hon. Sir James Mackintosh, Bart. M.P.

GENERAL. The Congress of Vienna, which was held in the city of Vienna, from the 1st of September to the 9th of June, 1814-1815, was one of the most important events of the century. It was the first time since the Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, that the great powers of Europe met to settle the boundaries of the continent. The Congress was attended by representatives of twenty-five states, including Austria, Prussia, Russia, France, Great Britain, and the United States. The Congress was presided over by the Austrian Emperor, Francis II, and the British representative was Lord Castlereagh. The Congress was a great success, and it resulted in the signing of the Treaty of Vienna, which restored the old boundaries of Europe and established a new system of international relations. The Congress was a landmark event in the history of the world, and it has been the subject of many books and articles. The following is a brief account of the Congress, as told by one of its participants, the Hon. Sir James Mackintosh, Bart. M.P.

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THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

(The Celebrated Gathering of Statesmen to Reconstruct Europe After Napoleon's Overthrow)

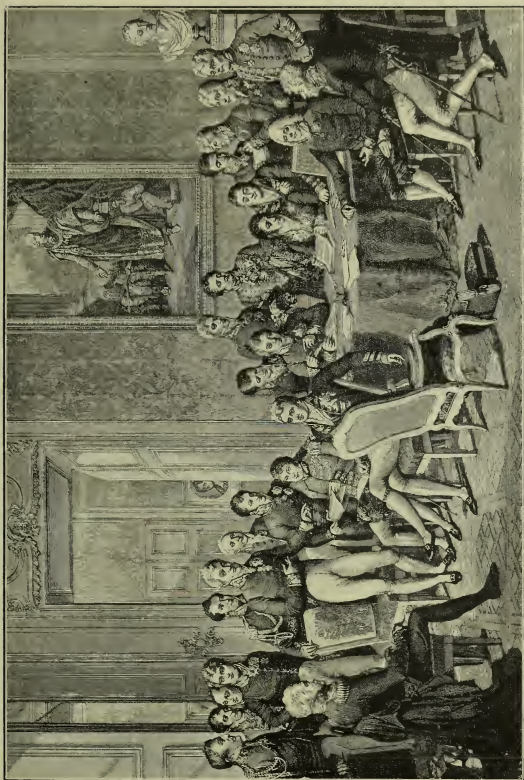
The official painting by the French artist, Jean Isabey (1767-1855)

GERMANY had become so completely disorganized by the conquests of Napoleon that some complete rearrangement of her government and all her tiny states was obviously necessary. Indeed, all Europe needed reconstruction of some sort. So after Napoleon's overthrow there was a mighty gathering of diplomats to rebuild Europe. They assembled at Vienna, because its sovereign had before the Napoleonic upheaval been Emperor of Germany, the rank regarded as the highest in Europe, the position to which even the great French monarch Louis XIV had aspired in vain.

To us to-day it is amazing to note how completely this "Congress of Vienna" ignored the "people" of Europe in its plans for reconstruction. The common people, the masses, had by their uprising throughout Germany overthrown Napoleon. But the kings and their prime-ministers now took all the credit to themselves and divided Europe as they wanted it. They were even afraid of their people, and took strong measures to repress any further advances toward liberty and free government.

The main leaders in this self-satisfied Congress, the two chief among the seated figures in the picture, were Metternich, the Austrian statesman who scorned the people utterly, and Talleyrand, the French diplomat, who by his cunning really ran the Congress as he wished, in favor of French interests. It was Talleyrand who once said that speech was given man to enable him to disguise his thoughts. That was indeed the treacherous attitude of the Congress.







MORE LIGHT.

Goethe's "The Sorrows of Werther" with a Life by E. Schlegel.
A new edition of the novel, with a new introduction.

JOHN W. PEARSON, 107 N. 10th St., Phila., Pa., has just published a new edition of his *Goethe's "The Sorrows of Werther"*, with a new introduction by E. Schlegel. The new edition is a revised and corrected version of the original, and is the first of its kind in this country. It is the only edition of the novel which has been published in this country since the first edition was published in 1849. The new edition is a revised and corrected version of the original, and is the first of its kind in this country. It is the only edition of the novel which has been published in this country since the first edition was published in 1849. The new edition is a revised and corrected version of the original, and is the first of its kind in this country. It is the only edition of the novel which has been published in this country since the first edition was published in 1849.





"MORE LIGHT!"

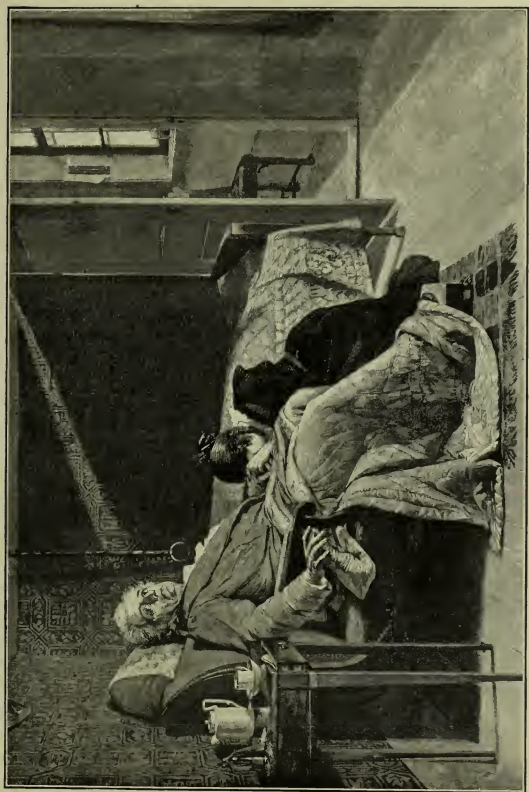
(Goethe, the Greatest of German Writers, Dies with a Cry for Light)

From the painting by the artist of Weimar, Fritz Fleischer

JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE, the most celebrated of all German authors, lived through the stirring times of which we have just told. Most of his life was spent in the little province of Saxe-Weimar, whose Duke was a noted patron of music and literature. The Duke invited Goethe to his court and was his lifelong employer and friend. Goethe took no active part in the resistance of Germany against Napoleon, partly because he was engrossed in his literary work, but more because in common with many Germans of the smaller states he began by regarding the French as the apostles of freedom to all Europe, and despite all their tyrannies he never wholly abandoned that idea. Goethe himself by his writings helped more than any other to spread among all the Germans a longing for liberty and union.

To Goethe, therefore, the years that followed 1815 seemed very miserable; for the government in each little German state trampled down every spark of popular liberty. The doctrines which he had been preaching all his life appeared to be defeated and rejected. He died in 1832 an old man over eighty, and his last words "More light!" were an outcry and a prayer that man might reach the goal toward which Goethe had striven all his life.







CORONATION OF WILLIAM I OF ENGLAND
William I. King of England, seated on the throne, with
the Archbishop of Canterbury, and other high officials.

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The coronation of William I. King of England, seated on the throne, with the Archbishop of Canterbury, and other high officials. The scene is set in a grand hall, with the king seated on a high throne, and the Archbishop of Canterbury standing to his right, holding a book. Other high officials are seated around the king. The king is wearing a crown and a long robe. The Archbishop is wearing a mitre and a long robe. The other officials are wearing various robes and hats. The scene is a detailed woodcut illustration of a historical event.

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CORONATION OF WILLIAM I OF PRUSSIA

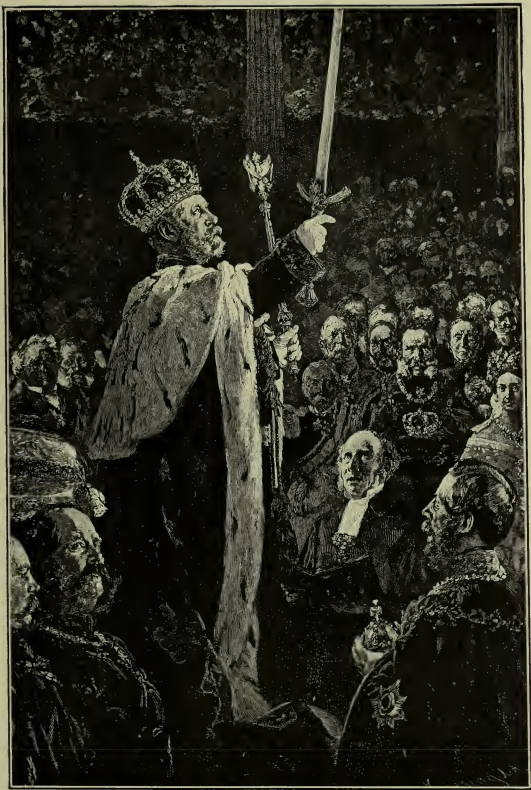
(William I, Made King of Prussia, Swears to Uphold His Own "Divine Right" to the Throne)

From a sketch of the time by the Prussian artist, H. Knesing

SOMETHING of Goethe's dying prayer found fulfillment when, in the year 1848, rebellions flaring up almost everywhere among the German states compelled most of the little rulers to grant constitutions to their subjects. It was then that constitutional government really began in Germany. In Prussia, however, the reforms were only slight; for her Hohenzollern monarchs have always been strongly imbued with the feeling that God has divinely appointed them to rule and that no one else must interfere. Frederick William IV, the king who was governing Prussia in 1848, declared that he would never let a "piece of paper," as he contemptuously termed a constitution, come between him and his duty to guide his people.

When in 1861 Frederick William IV was succeeded by his younger brother William, afterward the German Emperor William I, the new king at his coronation held aloft the sword of his power and vowed to defend all his kingly rights. William was, however, a kindly man desirous of helping his people all he could; and the cause of popular freedom all over Germany was aided by his accession. Only when his parliament interfered with his desire for a powerful army did he quarrel with it, persist in his plans in spite of parliamentary opposition, and finally flatly disobey the constitution he had granted.







PRUSSIA EXERTS INFLUENCE OVER GERMANY

King William I. Visiting the Congress at Berlin, and the Emperor of Germany, the Emperor of Austria, and the Emperor of Russia.

GERMANY has been the theatre of a series of events which have led to the present state of affairs. The influence of Prussia has been the dominant factor in the development of the German Empire. The Prussian King, William I., has been the driving force behind the unification of Germany. The Prussian army has been the backbone of the German nation. The Prussian navy has been the backbone of the German fleet. The Prussian government has been the backbone of the German state. The Prussian people have been the backbone of the German nation.

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PRUSSIA EXPELS AUSTRIA FROM GERMANY

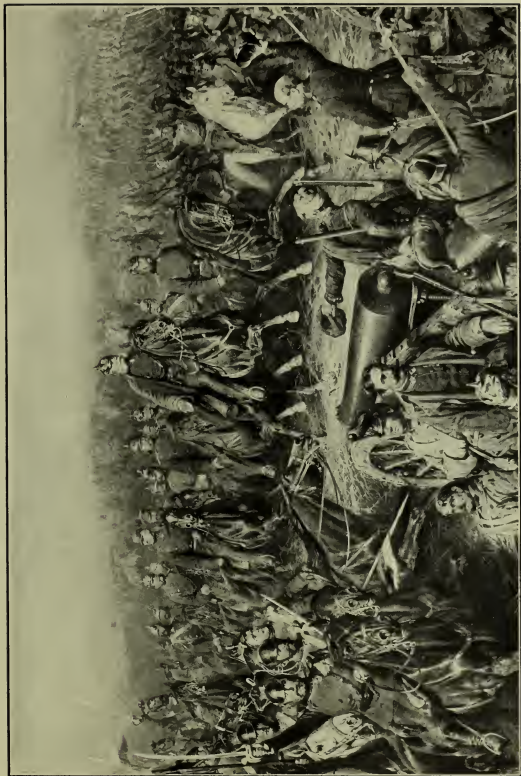
(King William I, Victorious at Koeniggratz, Leads His Soldiers on to Vienna)

From the painting by Anton von Werner, the Prussian court painter

GREAT changes have come over Germany in the last half century. The first and perhaps most striking of these was the expulsion of Austria from the German confederation. For over five centuries the Hapsburg rulers of Austria had been usually the Emperors and always the chief princes of the German Empire. To-day our maps of Germany place Austria wholly outside as a separate kingdom. This important change took place in 1866. The growing power of the Hohenzollern rulers of Prussia made them become, more markedly with every generation, the rivals of the Hapsburgs for German leadership.

The clash developed finally into a brief sharp war, often called the Seven Weeks War. In Prussia under King William I, the remarkable statesman Bismarck and the equally remarkable general Von Moltke laid skilful plans by which they suddenly forced Austria into war and then as suddenly crushed her armies. The central battle of this rapidly moving war was fought at Koeniggratz on Austrian territory. About a quarter of a million men fought on each side and the Austrians were so completely defeated that King William and his generals rode onward and dictated their own terms of peace beneath the walls of Vienna. The main clause in the peace-treaty was the agreement that Austria was to withdraw wholly from German affairs, leaving Prussia as the chief state there and a virtual dictator to the others.







THE FIRST VICTIMS OF 1870

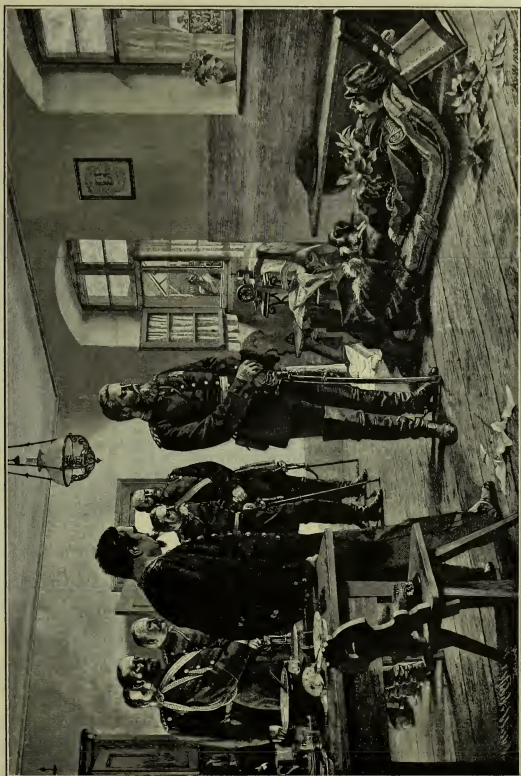
(Prince Frederick of Prussia Mourning Over the Death of the French General Douay)

From a painting by Anton von Werner, born at Berlin, 1843

THAT keenest of statesmen, Bismarck, having overthrown Austria, saw clearly that his country must defeat France also; for the French had developed an intense jealousy of the rapidly growing strength of Prussia. At just the moment he was ready for them, he lured the French into making a declaration of war, and the tragic struggle of 1870 began. This was originally a war of France not against Germany but only against Prussia; but so arrogant had been the French attitude that all Germans felt themselves insulted, and at the very outset of hostilities the rulers of Bavaria and the other south German states sent word to King William that they would help him and that he could command their troops as well as his own. Thus William's son Prince Frederick was made commander of the south German forces, and he invaded France at the head of an army drawn from many other states as well as Prussia.

The first battle of the war was fought by Frederick at Weissenburg in Alsace. His attack was so sudden that the French advance guard was swept back, its commander General Douay falling at the first fire. The retreating Frenchmen left their dead general's body with only his little dog to guard him; and there he was found by Prince Frederick and his staff when they advanced. Frederick, a man of peace, always grieved deeply over the grim necessities of this war.







THE VIOLET TAVERN

A NOVEL BY ALICE WATSON

LONDON: PUBLISHED BY THE AUTHOR, 1881.

THE VIOLET TAVERN was first published in 1881, and was one of the first of the many novels which Alice Watson wrote. It was a very successful work, and was followed by several others, all of which were well received by the public.

The story of the Violet Tavern is a very interesting one, and is full of many incidents which are calculated to attract the reader's attention. The plot is well laid out, and the characters are well drawn. The author has done her best to make the story as interesting as possible, and has succeeded in doing so.

The Violet Tavern is a very good example of the kind of novel which was popular in the late 19th century. It is a story of love and adventure, and is full of many incidents which are calculated to attract the reader's attention. The plot is well laid out, and the characters are well drawn. The author has done her best to make the story as interesting as possible, and has succeeded in doing so.





THE VICTORY AT WORTH

(The South German Troops Cheering Prince Frederick of Prussia)

From a painting by Professor Louis Braun, of Munich

THE Franco-Prussian or, as it so soon became, the Franco-German war of 1870 extended over a number of huge and terrible battles. France was not to be crushed as Austria had been by a single blow. She only surrendered after every patriotic Frenchman had done his best and the whole nation was utterly exhausted.

Prince Frederick's campaign in Alsace-Lorraine was settled by the battle of Worth, in which he and his south German auxiliaries completely defeated the army of the French Marshal Macmahon. The first signs of the union of the German states under Prussian leadership, which now exists as the German Empire, might have been seen at this battle of Worth. The victorious Bavarians and other Catholic troops cheered Prince Frederick as eagerly as did his own Protestant Prussians.

The entire German army, amounting to over half a million men, now pressed forward into France in three divisions. Prince Frederick commanded the central and chief division, but the real directing mind back of the German advance was that of General Von Moltke, the shrewdest of military scientists, who played at war as coolly and with as far reaching a vision as an expert plays at chess. He managed to break the French resisting forces into two divisions, one under Marshal Bazaine, the other under the French emperor, Napoleon III. Then he crushed each division separately.







THE OVERTHROW OF FRANCE

(The Desperate but Hopeless Charges of the French Cavalry at Sedan)

From a painting made in 1895 by the German artist, Georg Koch

PROBABLY the greatest single disaster which ever occurred to a powerful nation was that which broke the strength of the French resistance at Sedan. Marshal Macmahon had already been defeated at Worth and Marshal Bazaine in the huge battle of Gravelotte. But the French were quite certain that these defeats would be retrieved by the military genius of their emperor, Napoleon III, a nephew of the great Napoleon. The steady advance of Prince Frederick, however, prevented the union of the two French armies; and soon the main army, under the Emperor himself, was completely surrounded at Sedan.

This town lies in a river valley with hills on every side; and the German artillery posted on these hills were able to concentrate a terrible cannonade upon the unsheltered Frenchmen in the center of the valley. In the effort to break the ring of fire that surrounded them the French cavalry were almost annihilated in a series of desperate charges up the hills. The exhausted survivors who reached the German lines were met by a stubborn resistance that hurled them back. Napoleon saw that he was helpless. To continue to struggle was only to expose his army to annihilation. On September 2, 1870, he surrendered with a hundred and twenty thousand men.







THE FALL OF THE BRENNEN EMPIRE

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Not having found a trace of my *Myrica* I went on to examine the bed of my stream, and there, not far from the mouth of the stream, I found a small, shallow, circular depression, about 10 feet in diameter, and 2 feet deep. The bottom of this depression was composed of a soft, silty mud, and the sides were composed of a soft, silty mud. The depression was filled with water, and the water was very shallow. The depression was surrounded by a low, silty bank, and the water was very shallow. The depression was surrounded by a low, silty bank, and the water was very shallow. The depression was surrounded by a low, silty bank, and the water was very shallow.





THE FALL OF THE FRENCH EMPIRE

(Napoleon III. Arranges with Bismarck the Terms of France's Surrender)

From the series of paintings by the Prussian master, Anton von Werner

NAPOLÉON'S surrender of his army at Sedan was followed by his surrender of his empire. On the evening after the battle a white flag was hoisted on the walls of Sedan and Napoleon wrote to King William of Prussia, "Not having found death at the head of my soldiers, I lay my sword at the feet of your Majesty." Early next morning he drove out by appointment to the little village of Donchery, and there met the Prussian Chancellor, Bismarck, to arrange the terms of surrender. Napoleon had for years been known as "the dictator of Europe." Now he found that not he but the Prussian Chancellor was the true dictator.

Of course what both parties to this celebrated interview thought they were arranging was the surrender of France on such terms as Prussia might demand; but they soon found that France itself had no intention of accepting their arrangement. Frenchmen laid the whole blame for their disaster upon Napoleon personally, and as soon as they learned of his defeat at Sedan, they overthrew his empire, repudiated his authority and declared France a republic. So all Napoleon really surrendered was his army, which lay helpless in that ring of fire, and himself. He was held prisoner for a time in a German fortress; but when it was realized that he was truly now nothing but a broken old man without any power or influence whatever, he was allowed to go free. He retired to a quiet estate in England until his death.







Brosch und Von Mühlen: Mammography in der Gynäkologie bei Frauen mit...



"ON TO PARIS"

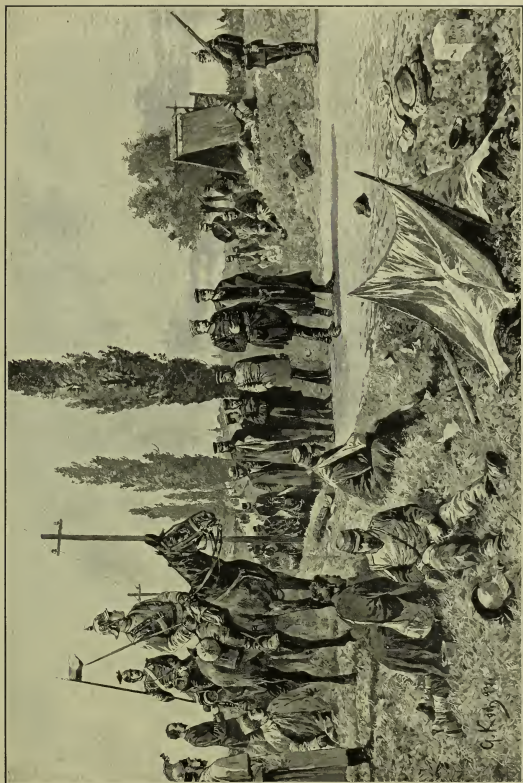
(Bismarck and Von Moltke Marching in Comradeship on the Great Advance to Paris)

From a painting made in 1893 by the German artist, Georg Koch

THE new French Republic which had sprung suddenly from the crumbling ruin of Napoleon's empire, refused to listen to any terms of peace which asked the surrender of a single foot of French territory. So the statesman Bismarck and the general Von Moltke resumed their attack. They led the Germans against Paris. What the French republicans were hoping for was a renewal of those wonderful days of the Republic of 1789 when the French patriots met the invading armies of all Europe and hurled them back on every side. But they forgot that the royal armies they then met had been composed of peasantry like themselves, hating the kings who drove them into war, and fighting only on compulsion. The Germans who came against them now were patriots as eager for victory as the French and burning to avenge the wrongs their fathers had suffered from the soldiers of the first Napoleon.

The scattered, untrained French armies which were raised, were no match for these new Germans. Just as the Prussians under Blucher had twice advanced on Paris in 1814 and 1815, so now the united Germans advanced again with a stern determination which the Frenchmen could not stop. Every French force was defeated, and Paris was surrendered. Prussia might have held France as a conquered country, had not the German statesmen been taught the folly of such a course by the failure of the first Napoleon's effort to hold Germany in similar subjection.







CORRELATION OF THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE

Printed in the United States of America





CREATION OF THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE

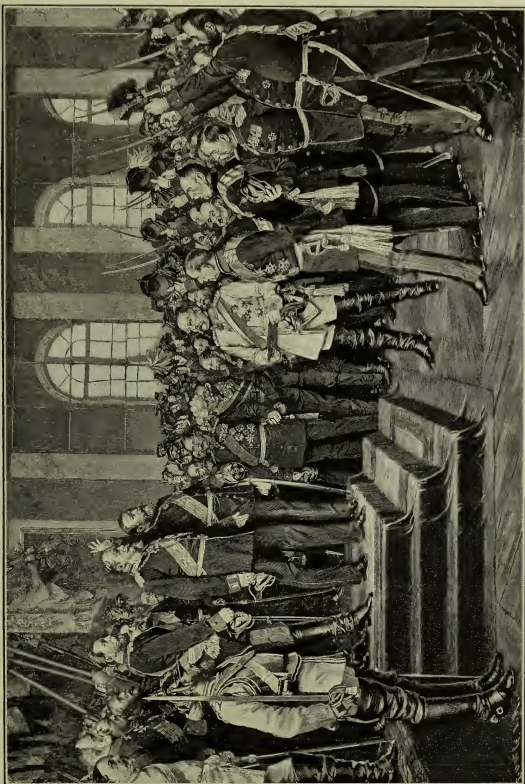
(William of Prussia Proclaimed Emperor of the Germans at Versailles)

From the painting by Anton von Werner in the Statehouse of Berlin

TO Germans, there arose from this great war of 1870 a result far more important than their victory over France. This was their union among themselves. It must be remembered that Germany had never really been united under any powerful government since the days of Frederick Barbarossa nearly seven centuries before. Each one of her little states had fought for itself against the others, and never once had the entire strength of Germany been united against an outside foe. The fatal consequences of this disunion had been felt again and again. But never had any man seen the way to escape it until Bismarck built his plan. First he expelled Austria from Germany; then he brought Prussia forward as the leader in resisting France. Every little German state shared in the victories of this wonderful war, and all were eager to perpetuate their union. So the kings of the other German states, with Bavaria at their head, entreated King William of Prussia to become their Emperor.

His coronation took place in the midst of the German armies, in France itself, in the palace of the French monarchs, the celebrated "Hall of Mirrors" at Versailles. The position of Emperor was made hereditary in King William's family, and by his side stood his son, the victorious general Frederick, who was to be his successor. Round them were grouped the other German rulers, with Bismarck and Von Moltke the foremost of their subjects.





Europe, the diplomats patched and tinkered the old one together again. "We have been in a bad dream for seven years," said William, ruler of the little German state of Hesse. "Now we will wake where we went to sleep." He accordingly reduced all his court officials to the positions they had held before, and cut down their salaries to correspond. In his army, too, the officers who had risen to be captains and majors were set back into their former lieutenantcies; he even introduced the old, stiff wigs and antiquated arms of former days, among his soldiers.

In the same spirit, the Congress of Vienna gave back France to the ancient French royal line, with the boundaries about as they had been in 1792, that is, as Louis XIV. and XV. had made them. This still kept Alsace and Lorraine away from Germany. Holland and Belgium were made into an independent kingdom of the Netherlands. The petty kings of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony were allowed to retain the titles Napoleon had conferred on them; and Hanover was also made into a German kingdom, the English monarch becoming its king. Austria regained all her lost territories. Prussia, fortunately for herself, was deprived of her dominion over the Sclavic Poles of Warsaw, but was given in exchange a large part of poor Saxony, and also the German lands west of the Rhine, from which Napoleon had driven so many little rulers. These lesser princes and bishops were not restored to their forgotten thrones. Germany was made to consist of thirty-nine independent states, including Austria, Prussia, four other kingdoms, twenty-nine lesser principalities, and four free cities, Lubeck, Hamburg, Bremen, and Frankfort.

The people, with a larger patriotism than their kings, had demanded a united Germany, a restoration of the ancient German power; and to satisfy their clamor all the thirty-nine states were declared to be in one confederation, with Austria as its president. But the confederation, like that among the American colonies before 1789, had really no inherent strength or value. All the power remained with the individual states, and the union was little more than a name.

In addition to forming this league each German ruler pledged himself to establish some sort of constitution, giving a share of the government to his subjects. That was all the people got out of the Congress—vague promises, pledges, words which had no meaning. They were to be quieted—that was all. The kings wanted no more revolutions.

At first the Germans were content and awaited their promised constitutions. One ruler after another, however, found an excuse for continuing his old, absolute sway. The few constitutions granted were mainly drawn up by the kings themselves, and made intentionally worthless. The people grew suspicious and discontented, and vague murmurs of rebellion were heard. In Prussia and

Saxony the university students began to form secret societies based upon revolutionary ideas. In 1817 they held an immense meeting to celebrate the centenary of the Reformation, and, imitating Luther, cast into the flames a number of books antagonistic to German freedom and unity.

At this celebration was displayed for the first time the black, red, and yellow tricolor, composed of the royal colors of the ancient empire. In the old days the black had stood for the Saxons, red for the Franks, and yellow for the South Germans. Now the flag was made a symbol of the demand for a united Germany. The progressive societies became more aggressive. In 1819 a Prussian student slew the dramatist Kotzebue, because he was a Russian spy. King Frederick William III., grown old and set in his ways, proclaimed harsh, restrictive laws. Many young men were imprisoned or banished. The persecution was imitated through all Germany.

In 1830 the French revolted successfully against "absolutism," and changed France into a constitutional monarchy. Naturally the bitter feeling of the repressed German people was intensified. Sparks of revolt against absolutism flashed out in many of the little states. The Duke of Brunswick had to flee for his life, and his palace was burned behind him. In Frankfort, where the feeble assemblage of the German Confederation was being held, an attack was made upon the parliament itself, and considerable blood was shed. Constitutions were granted right and left by terrified rulers.

The danger passed, however, and under Austrian influence the reactionary policy of the kings were resumed. In 1840, old Frederick William III. of Prussia died. He has been bitterly condemned by the extreme revolutionists; but the mass of his people, who had passed with him through the trying times of Napoleon, loved him and respected his worth. He was succeeded by his son, Frederick William IV. (1840-1861). For a time the people hoped much from the new King's liberal ideas, but at last he distinctly notified them that he would not let a "piece of paper" come between him and what he considered his divinely appointed duties.

The Hohenzollerns have always been among the most determined upholders of the "divine right" of kings; and it is fortunate for Germany that most of the family have been equally staunch in acceptance of their duties toward the people. The material progress of Prussia under the government of Frederick William III. and Frederick William IV. was remarkable. Indeed for all Germany the half-century following Napoleon's downfall was a period of great prosperity. There were no wars, except for a trifling one with Denmark. No foreign foe set foot anywhere upon German land; commerce increased enormously; the newly invented railways and steamboats were introduced; the exhausted country recuperated as if by magic; its wealth doubled and quadrupled.

It was the year 1848 which finally saw Europe, especially Germany, transformed into a land of "constitutions," of governments more or less directly by the people. France was as usual the centre of the movement. She declared herself a republic. A tremendous popular outbreak followed in almost every state of Europe. In Austria the people took possession of Vienna. Metternich, the ancient repressor of liberty, had to flee to England for his life. The old Austrian Emperor, Francis II., had died in 1835. His son, Ferdinand, yielded to the demand of the revolutionists and summoned an elective parliament from all the varied Austrian possessions. Finally he resigned his office to his nephew Francis Joseph, the present Emperor. Vienna, being held by the revolutionists, was bombarded by government troops and captured by storm. The rebel leaders were shot; and after a few years the absolute government was restored.

In Berlin the revolution was even more violent. Troops and citizens fought for a whole day in the streets. The dead and dying were carried on planks before the windows of their King, and Frederick at once yielded everything his people had asked. "I place myself at the head of your revolt," he said. In a proclamation that followed he promised to try with the other princes to secure a more united Germany. It wound up, "From this day forward, Prussia becomes merged in Germany."

Earnest efforts were made to establish a reformed Prussian government, but the most radical of the revolutionists insisted on a republic, and it was nearly two years before all parties agreed on the constitution. The King swore to support it, and it has ever since remained the law of the land.

During the time that matters remained undecided at Berlin, the outbreaks in the lesser German states were repressed, mainly by Prussian troops. Austria was distracted by a great Hungarian rebellion, and Prussian influence was much increased throughout Germany. It seemed almost as if the second yearning of the people, a united empire, was about to be realized. A national assembly, truly representative of the people, gathered at Frankfort, and after much deliberation offered the presidency of the league to the King of Prussia, with the title "Emperor of the Germans." So little real power was, however, proffered with the honor that Frederick William declined it. "The Imperial crown of Germany," said he with prophetic insight, "can only be won upon the field of battle."

Now opened an intricate game of diplomacy between Austria and Prussia. It was clear that all parties desired a stronger union. Which of the two great powers should lead in this? Reactionary, Catholic Austria, or progressive, Protestant Prussia? Their ancient rivalry revived, as dangerous as ever it had been. One quarrel followed another. The lesser states were drawn into the

wrangle. Feeling was bitterly inflamed, and gradually it became apparent that only open war could settle the issue. The conflict was as irrepressible as the slavery contest in America.

The great statesman who maneuvered Prussia through the various stages of her brilliant triumph over Austria, was Otto von Bismarck. He had early seen whither all things were tending, and in 1862 made his celebrated speech in the Prussian parliament, declaring that the problem must be solved "not by speeches and majorities, but by blood and iron." Both friends and enemies seized upon the phrase, and he became everywhere known as the "man of blood and iron."

Meanwhile Frederick William IV. had died in 1861 and been succeeded by his younger brother William, the celebrated king who was to become Emperor William I. William was sixty-four years old when he ascended the throne. He had been with his mother, Queen Louise, at the tragic peace of Tilsit. He and his elder brother Frederick had made a childish vow to avenge their mother's wrongs, and he had marched with the army into Paris in 1814. All his life he had been a soldier, and under his brother was commander-in-chief of the Prussian armies. He was a true Hohenzollern in his belief in the divine origin of his power. In his speech before coronation he declared: "The monarchs of Prussia receive their crown from God. . . . It is inviolable. The duty of the parliament is to assist the King with its counsel. The members will advise me and I will give due attention to their words."

Immediately on his accession to the throne William, an enthusiast in military affairs, began to reconstruct and enlarge his forces. He made Bismarck his chief minister. The Prussian parliament refused to vote the heavy taxes needed for the new army, refused in fact to have the new army at all. Bismarck attempted to force their consent. He overrode the recently established constitution, and thus, as the foe of the new liberties, became the most generally hated man in Germany. The parliamentary struggle grew bitter, and Bismarck and the King, finding they could not have their way openly, began to carry out their plans in secret. Once more, though unsuspected, Prussia became a great military power.

The excuse for the inevitable Austro-Prussian war was found in a quarrel over the little duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. These belonged to the ancient empire, and were wrenched from the grasp of Denmark by Prussian and Austrian troops, fighting side by side under the authority of the German Confederation. It was understood that the little duchies were to be handed over to their legitimate prince, Frederick of Augustenberg. But Prussia, finding that Frederick was Austrian in his sympathies, objected, and claimed some authority in the duchies for herself.

Prussia was overbearing in the matter, and perhaps unjust. Austria was

diplomatically polite and suave, and soon had almost the entire Confederation on her side. Even the Prussian people themselves disapproved the actions of their government. Never was minister more bitterly assailed than Bismarck. An attempt was made to assassinate him in the streets of Berlin. The people had no desire for war, and it seemed absurd that Prussia, a state of less than twenty million population, should dare deliberately to array herself against the whole of Germany and the Austrian Empire, representing nearly three times that number.

The decisive moment came when, at Austria's urgency, the German Confederation agreed, June 14, 1866, to prepare its troops to resist Prussian aggression. The Prussian Government accepted this as an act of war, and declaring the Confederation dissolved, began marshalling an army against Austria. On June 15, Bismarck sent peremptory word to the three large North German states, Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse, that they must at once stop arming, and within twelve hours declare themselves neutral in the coming war, as Prussia, in attacking Austria, would not risk having enemies in her rear.

Hanover could no longer rely on England for support, the two having become estranged when Queen Victoria ascended the English throne in 1837. In Hanover the sovereignty passed, not to her, but to her uncle, who became the Hanoverian King. Hanover, however, and Saxony and Hesse also counted confidently on Austrian assistance. Neither of them therefore made any answer to Bismarck's demand; instead, they hurried their preparations for war.

The next morning, June 16, Prussian armies invaded each defiant little state. There was not much fighting. Prussia had been too prompt, and her adversaries were too inferior in numbers and resources. The troops of Hesse and Saxony escaped southward to join Austria. One Hanoverian battle occurred at Langensalza, in which a small Prussian force was somewhat worsted. Two days later, however, the whole Hanoverian army was surrounded at Langensalza by overwhelming numbers, and forced to surrender (June 29). Hanover became a Prussian province. Their rear being thus secure, the Prussian troops advanced into South Germany, winning several minor battles from the scattered forces of the "Confederation."

Meanwhile, the main Prussian army was hurrying toward Bohemia to attack the Austrians. King William issued a proclamation from Berlin declaring that Prussia had endured too much of Austrian dictatorship, and meant now to establish German unity and harmony by forcibly driving her rival out of the confederation. Italy, having grievances of her own against Austrian tyranny, joined also in the war.

The most impressive thing about this Austro-Prussian contest, the "Seven

Weeks' War" as it is called, was the splendid readiness of the Prussian forces. The minister of war, Von Roon, and the chief of staff, Von Moltke, had foreseen everything. They knew the struggle was coming, and they had studied their adversaries' probable course, and mapped out their answering moves as though engaged in a game of chess. They had counted even on the Saxons blowing up a certain bridge to delay the Prussian advance; and when it really did go up, Prussian soldiers were carrying a bridge of their own, built to measurement in sections, and exactly replacing the one destroyed.

In the face of such preparedness, Austria, with her antiquated methods, was wellnigh as helpless as little Hanover had been. There was a new and improved weapon, too, the needle-gun, which the Prussians carried, and which was to have much to do with the result.

The two armies, each about two hundred and fifty thousand strong, soon confronted each other on the Austrian soil of Bohemia. Fighting all along the lines commenced June 27. The Austrians were everywhere pushed back until they concentrated around the village of Sadowa and the fortress of Koeniggratz. Here the main battle occurred July 3, 1866. After a long, brave struggle the poorly armed and badly organized Austrians were completely defeated and fled upon every side. The Prussian troops gathering round their King upon the field, raised once more their ancient hymn "Nun danket alle Gott."

The battle of Koeniggratz must rank as one of the most important events of the nineteenth century. After this decisive victory, King William advanced with his army to Vienna, almost unopposed, and in front of his rival's capital he dictated the terms of a peace, which excluded Austria forever from German affairs.

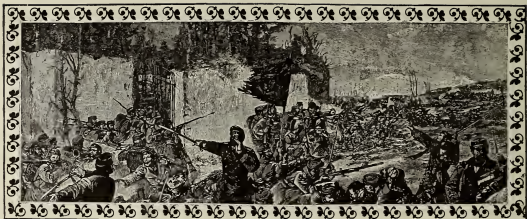
King William, his only son Frederick, General von Roon, and General von Moltke had each won glory by the war. But most honored of them all was the hitherto hated minister, Bismarck. Never was seen so complete a revulsion of popular sentiment. The "man of blood and iron" had been right, his adversaries wrong. The Prussian nation could not do enough for him. The parliament hastened to acknowledge its errors, and every unconstitutional act of which Bismarck had been guilty, was legalized and enthusiastically indorsed.

No less remarkable was Bismarck's diplomatic success in the treaties which followed the war. Prussia arranged a peace with the South German states, by which they secretly agreed to help her with their arms, if needed for the defence of Germany. They also formed a little South German confederation among themselves, excluding Austria. In the north, Prussia announced that she annexed Hanover, Hesse, and some other states. With Saxony and the little principalities that had stood by her in the war, she established the North

German Union, assuming all authority in military and commercial matters, while allowing her allies to retain their self-government in internal affairs. Thus, in the north at least, Prussia had succeeded in establishing the much desired and long baffled German unity. The intervening difficulties which had so perplexed previous generations, she solved by the simple process of swallowing the other states.



PRUSSIAN CHARGE AT LANGENSALZA



THE WURTEMBERGERS IN THE SUBURBS OF PARIS

Chapter LXVIII

BISMARCK AND THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.



WE approach now the last impressive scene, the spectacular climax of this truly remarkable drama of Prussian achievement. To understand the feelings with which Prussia's growing importance was regarded by the rest of Europe, we must remember that she was a newcomer among the great powers. In history a century is but a little while, and it was scarce more than a century before, that Prussia had begun her ambitious rise under

Frederick the Great.

France and Austria could not forget that for ages they had been the masters of Western Europe. They still insisted on being considered such; and now, Austria's pride having been humbled, France felt all the more her right to be so regarded. Her ruler had even the nickname of "the arbiter of Europe."

Russia, too, accustomed during Napoleon's time to look on little Prussia as a poor neighbor to be patronized, resented her sudden growth. The Russian Czar even meditated taking up the cause of the deposed German princes and forcing Prussia to surrender her spoils.

England was the one power that rejoiced in the increase of German strength. The English are part of the mighty German or Teutonic race, and "blood is thicker than water." Besides, in a united Germany, England might find a worthy ally against her great antagonist, Russia. So England overlooked the destruction of Hanover and upheld Prussia's course, thus perhaps

preventing another huge European coalition against the rising state. The friendship thus established between the two Teutonic powers has since suffered no serious check.

In France the feeling against Prussia grew daily more bitter. The nephew of the famous Napoleon had established himself as Emperor of France, under the name of Napoleon III. His eventful life had seen many vicissitudes, and he was now old and shrewd and experienced, and sensible that his throne rested on none too secure a foundation. He understood well the passion of his nation for glory, and he catered to it. Immediately after the Austro-Prussian war he demanded that France be allowed to take Belgium and some German territory as "compensation" for the increased strength of Prussia.

The Prussian Government, with half a million men still under arms, promptly refused; and Napoleon, utterly unready for war, was compelled to withdraw his demand. The French could not forget this. It hurt their pride; it hurt Napoleon's influence over them. Was his title of "arbiter of Europe" only an empty nickname, that he could be thus brushed aside? "Down with Prussian arrogance!" became the most popular political cry in France.

The four years from 1866 to 1870 are splendid monuments to Bismarck's fame as a statesman. Seeing clearly the necessity for a French war, and measuring all the good which it might be made to work for Germany, he warned Von Roon and Moltke to prepare their armies, he himself arranged alliances. Austria, bitter at first against Prussia, was conciliated, and gradually convinced that she was really better off as a separate empire, unentangled in the numerous petty German squabbles. The South German states were united in a commercial alliance with Prussia, and taught to regard her as a liberal, generous, and trustworthy friend, a true protector in time of need.

The people of North Germany were made loyal and enthusiastic in the support of the national cause. A national, or North German, flag was adopted, the tricolor which is now the emblem of the whole German empire, the Franco-German red being added to the Prussian black and white. Prussia was indeed, as Frederick William IV. had once promised, "merged in Germany."

In the summer of 1870 came the unpleasant opportunity for which France had been waiting. The Spanish people invited a German prince to their empty throne. He was a distant relative of the Prussian royal family, and the French ministry at once declared that their country had suffered too much already from the union of Spain and Germany, in the time of Charles V., and they could not allow such a conjunction to be re-established. Furthermore, the French insisted they were insulted, because the matter had been discussed at all without their approval having been first asked. They demanded that the prince withdraw altogether from the competition for the Spanish throne.

King William of Prussia acted with great courtesy and moderation. He declared that he himself had not been asked to approve the prince's nomination; that he had no right to command the young man to withdraw, but that he certainly would counsel him to do so. Thus advised, the prince did withdraw at once.

So the French had their "glory," and the incident seemed closed. Perhaps it will never be quite clear just how the smouldering embers were again fanned into a blaze. We know now that the "man of blood and iron" had some part at least in it. He was all ready for war; and he knew what most of the French themselves did not know, that they were fatally unready. Besides, Frenchmen were ill-satisfied that "Prussian arrogance" had escaped so cheaply. Presently, therefore, Napoleon III. and his ministers made the astounding demand that Prussia should guarantee that no Hohenzollern should ever ascend the Spanish throne. The slow German temper began to rise under this persistent nagging; the demand was flatly refused.

The French ambassador was sent to see King William personally, with orders to "be rough with him," and to demand a written apology to France. The ambassador fulfilled his instructions so well that the kindly old king turned on his heel and left the Frenchman standing in the street. The spot in the town of Ems where the celebrated interview occurred is marked by a square flagstone, which is jestingly called "the corner-stone of the German empire."

The French had now what obviously many of them were seeking, a pretext sufficient in their minds to justify war. The "insult" to their ambassador was grossly exaggerated and misrepresented at Paris. The Paris mob went wild. The Ems interview had occurred July 13; on the 15th the French Government declared war.

It is equally clear now, that Bismarck also obtained what he wanted. He had forced the war of 1866 upon his countrymen, but so harshly and arbitrarily that his purpose was too evident, and all Germany, even the Prussians themselves, exclaimed against him. Taught by experience he handled the French struggle so dextrously that the blame seemed to lie wholly with France. The venerable King William became the centre of universal sympathy.

Germans everywhere felt that their land had been hounded into war by French ambition and vanity. The kings of the South German Confederation sent prompt word to King William that their forces were ready to march at his command. The cause was regarded not as a Prussian, but as a national one. France seemed determined to launch once more upon such a career of conquest as when, under the first Napoleon, she astounded Europe.

The people of Germany rose as one man. Troops long held in readiness by Von Moltke were hurried by hundreds of thousands to the Rhine, chanting

patriotic songs along the way. Napoleon III. had meant to be first in the field, to invade Prussia and to draw the South Germans to his side. Instead of that, a great army, representing united Germany and outnumbering the French two to one, was pouring into France before Napoleon's forces were half ready.

France was beaten at the start. Her surprised soldiers made heroic resistance, but they were assailed with a courage that matched their own, and were overwhelmed, even as the Austrians had been, by the superior readiness of Prussia and the consummate military science of Von Moltke.

In its details this whirlwind war may be divided into three stages: First, the brave effort of the French armies to repel the invaders, which ended with the battles of Worth and Gravelotte; second, the desperate struggle of the French generals to save their defeated armies, which surrendered at Sedan and at Metz; and third, the writhing of the conquered nation, helpless in the enemy's relentless grip.

The Germans advanced from the Palatinate southward and westward into Alsace and Lorraine, the ancient land of Lotharingia, which Louis XIV. had wrested from Germany. The invading troops were divided into two armies; that which first engaged in battle was forcing its way south toward Strasburg. It numbered perhaps a hundred and fifty thousand men, mainly South Germans, and was under the command of King William's only son, Prince Frederick, he who afterward became Emperor for those few pathetic months in 1888. Opposed to Frederick was a French army of between fifty and one hundred thousand under Marshal MacMahon.

The French advance guard under General Douay was defeated in a first battle at Weissenburg (August 4, 1870), Douay himself being among the earliest of the French heroes to fall. His body was abandoned by his retreating troops to the care of the pitying and chivalrous Frederick; and MacMahon gathered his entire army in a strongly intrenched position on the heights beyond Worth, where they deemed themselves safe from assault.

They were, however, attacked by the resolute Germans, August 6. Bavarians and Prussians fought heroically side by side, their former quarrels forgotten in the glow and inspiration of battle. Prince Frederick, as he rode into Worth among them, was cheered as heartily by the South Germans as by his own subjects. Together the united Teutons charged up the steep hills and through tangled vineyards, until at last the French fled in utter rout. Most of MacMahon's army was scattered in the flight; his bravest regiments were piled in heaps of dead upon the field; a remnant of his forces retreated to the strong fortress city of Strasburg and were there besieged.

Meanwhile, the main German army was entering France further to the

north, where they were awaited by Napoleon III. with two hundred thousand men. The Germans had nearly three hundred thousand soldiers in line, with King William himself in supreme command—though the real guide and military director of the whole was Von Moltke. Bismarck, too, left Berlin to follow in person the movements of the mighty forces he had hurled against each other.

The first battle along the border line in this vicinity was fought at Spichenren, on the very day of MacMahon's defeat at Worth. The heights of Spichenren are so steep and rocky that they are at all times difficult to climb, yet German troops fought their way up in the face of a resolute foe. Men fell pierced by five bullets at once. "If this lasts much longer," said a sturdy old Prussian as he clambered upward, "we shall be in danger for our lives."

They forced the French from those heights; and more! before the day was over cavalry, and even artillery, labored to the summit. "But, my children," said King William afterward, as he looked at the slopes, "my children, it is absolutely impossible!" "Quite true, your Majesty. But it was done!"

The French army under Napoleon III. now retreated toward the celebrated fortress of Metz. MacMahon had raised a second army in the heart of France and was hurrying toward the frontier to join the main body. The union was never effected. By a series of hard-fought and bloody battles, the Germans forced themselves between Napoleon and his line of retreat and shut up his vast host in Metz.

The final contest by which this was accomplished was at Gravelotte (August 18). For one moment there it seemed as if Bismarck's plans would fail. The French carried a new rifle, the "chassepot," before which the German regiments melted like snow in the sun. At the crisis of the struggle Bismarck, wishing to learn what Moltke really thought of the outcome, offered him his cigar case. The old veteran devoted himself to selecting a cigar as deliberately as if seated at ease in his own home. Then Bismarck knew their cause was saved. So, indeed, it was. German reinforcements arrived, the French were everywhere swept back, and their entire army, still numbering with its reinforcements one hundred and seventy-five thousand men, was sealed up within the walls of Metz.

Napoleon III. was not with these imprisoned troops; he had turned over their command to his marshal, Bazaine, and joined MacMahon's new army. With this he now made a desperate attempt to retrieve his fortunes by passing round the German invaders to the north, to relieve Metz or perhaps invade Prussia. He was, however, surrounded at Sedan by overwhelming numbers. By repeated assaults, his soldiers were driven all together and huddled into the village of Sedan in a confused and helpless mass. The German artillery began

to pour shot and shell from the surrounding heights into the herds of beaten men, and Napoleon surrendered himself and his entire army on September 2.

"Having failed to find death in the midst of my troops," he wrote to King William, "it only remains for me to lay my sword at your majesty's feet." His soldiers, blaming him for their defeat, were furious against him; and it was really as a fugitive from his own army that he rode out of Sedan. He met Bismarck on the Donchery road and, accepting from the statesman who had outwitted him, the terms proposed for his personal surrender, he left France never to return.

This was the beginning of the end. The largest French force was, under Bazaine, shut up helplessly in Metz. The remnant of MacMahon's first army, some twenty thousand men, were besieged in Strasburg. The only free force had been that under Napoleon, which was captured at Sedan.

The French, however, with characteristic heroism refused to accept defeat. The Empire of Napoleon III., they said, had fallen through its leader's incompetency and neglect; but France was still undefeated. The captive Napoleon was declared deposed, and a republic was established. The chiefs of the new government sought peace, but refused to yield an inch of territory. Germany demanded that her long-lost lands of Alsace and Lorraine should be returned. So the war went on.

The main body of the German forces advanced under Moltke's leadership, upon Paris. The French, by tremendous efforts, raised meagre armies here and there, through the country, but these were ill-prepared and were defeated as fast as formed. The war really settled into the three celebrated sieges, of Strasburg, Metz, and Paris. Strasburg surrendered September 28; Metz, with its hordes of starving soldiers, October 27; but Paris bravely held out through all the long and dismal winter of 1870-1871.

The besieging and defensive operations around this great city have been pronounced the most stupendous of modern warfare. Nearly half a million men surrounded Paris from without, and probably as many were enrolled in the regiments within. The tale of the city's suffering belongs rather to French history than to German; but King William and his troops had also much hardship to endure. They were brave, patient, and determined; every effort of the besieged to break out was vigorously repulsed; and at last the French, acknowledging themselves defeated, secured a cessation of hostilities, January 26, though the formal surrender of the city did not take place until March 1.

The last active operations of the war were those undertaken by General Bourbaki, who raised an army in the south of France and attempted to invade Germany. He had a force in excess of one hundred thousand, but the troops

composing it, though brave and loyal, were inexperienced and more like a mob than an army. General Werder of Baden with an army of less than half the size, repulsed Bourbaki at every point in January of 1871. Finally, Bourbaki attempted suicide, while his troops, half-starved and half-naked, fled through the snowy mountains into Switzerland and laid down their arms.

Thus the actual fighting in this stupendous Franco-German war lasted for a period of only six months, from the beginning of August, 1870, to the end of January, 1871. Europe has not ceased marvelling at the colossal magnitude of the German operations and the overwhelming completeness of their success. Three enormous French armies, each numbering over a hundred thousand men, besides innumerable smaller bodies, were taken prisoners; a fourth immense host was driven into Switzerland. One hundred and sixty important engagements were fought, seventeen of which must be ranked among the world's great battles. Twenty-two fortresses were captured, three of which, Strasburg, Metz, and Paris, had been accounted impregnable. The loss of life on the German side alone reached hundreds of thousands. Bismarck had achieved an unparalleled triumph; but Germany had paid a solemn and awful price.

In view of the completeness of the victory, the terms of peace demanded were moderate and even magnanimous. France was made to pay a billion dollars toward the cost of the war, but all the territory taken from her was the ancient German land included in Alsace and Lorraine.

Most noteworthy of all is the fact that these provinces were not ceded to Prussia, but to a new power which, when the war began, did not exist. Events more important to Germans than the remarkable struggle itself had led on to new issues. Stimulated and swept forward in the great torrent of combat, the drama of German unity had been carried to its triumphant climax.

Germans of the North and of the South had been fused into one nation by their brotherhood in the heroic strife. Even before the surrender at Sedan, Bavaria expressed a desire to join the North German Union. The other states soon followed her lead; and the necessary changes in the constitution of the Union were speedily arranged.

A united Germany thus rose at last before men's sight. There could be no question as to who should sit upon its throne. King William was unanimously proffered the title of Emperor, which was to be hereditary in his family. Delays inevitably occurred. The empire itself was announced as beginning January 1, 1871, but it was not until January 14 that King William, writing from the headquarters of the army at Versailles, near Paris, addressed an open letter to all Germany, announcing that he assumed the imperial crown. He took it, he said, not in the spirit of those mediæval emperors who had wasted the strength of the nation in foreign conquest, but with the earnest

desire to establish and preserve the peace and prosperity of Germany within her own ancient limits.

On January 18 the newly created Emperor, William I., stood in the great "Hall of Mirrors" at Versailles, surrounded by all his generals and all the German princes, while his title of "*Deutscher Kaiser*" (German Emperor) was formally proclaimed to the world.



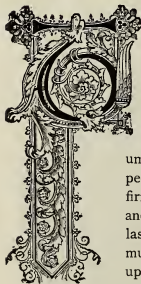
THE HEIGHTS OF SPICHEREN



THE GERMAN EMPIRE SUMMONING ITS DEFENDERS

Chapter LXIX

THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.



THE story of ancient, discordant Germany, with its hundreds of little independent kingdoms, closed on January 18, 1871, when, amid the sullen booming of the Paris guns, the cheers that greeted a new empire, and a welcome Emperor, echoed and reechoed through the Versailles Hall of Mirrors. Another and far different tale was then begun, having for its subject the triumphant career of a powerful, united, and intensely patriotic people. The present German Empire seems as strong and firmly knit, as the former "Holy Roman Empire" was weak and loosely held together. Apparently Germans have at last learned the two great lessons of their history—that they must not seek to impose their rule upon other nations, nor upon one another.

So far, the new empire, with its new doctrines of peace and brotherhood, has been eminently successful. For a generation mankind has watched its course with respect and admiration. Let us look therefore for a moment at its methods and principles of government.

It is, like the American, an indissoluble union. At its head stands the Emperor, who is also King of Prussia, both ranks being hereditary in the Hohenzollern family. His powers and duties are very similar to those of the American President, except that his importance and opportunities are much increased by the fact that he holds office for life. He cannot, however, veto any legislation; he can only seek to dissolve the parliament whose laws he disapproves,

and call for the election of another. Much of the practical authority lies in the hands of the Imperial Chancellor, who is appointed by the Emperor and removable at his pleasure.

The parliament consists of two houses. The lower or Reichstag (Assembly of the Empire) has about four hundred members, elected as are the American representatives, directly by vote of the people, and apportioned according to the number of voters. The upper house or Bundesrath (Counsel of the Union) has about sixty members, who are allotted, not as in America, two to each state without regard to its size; nor, on the other hand, precisely according to population, since this would give Prussia a clear majority. The division of representation follows a compromise agreement, made among the German states; thus, Prussia has seventeen members, Bavaria six, and so on down. The representatives to the Bundesrath are appointed by any method their own states prefer. Indeed, each state retains whatever form of internal government chance and its rulers have given it.

There are twenty-six of these separate states, of which four are monarchies like Prussia, eighteen are duchies or other principalities, three, the free cities, are republics, and one, Alsace-Lorraine, is an imperial province under the government of the Emperor.

At first, of course, there were many doubts as to the stability of the new empire. So long as William I. ruled (1871-1888), his personal character, the love and veneration with which he was everywhere regarded, made his government secure; but when he ascended the throne he was already seventy-four years old. Fortunately he was spared to his people for seventeen years more. His happy fate included a majestic and peaceful old age, during which the union he had helped to form became strong enough to move onward independent of his kindly wisdom.

Under him there could be but one Imperial Chancellor. Bismarck, the greatest statesman of the age, was raised to the rank of Prince von Bismarck, and guided the course of the government which he of all men had done most to create.

In the same manner that he had measured the value to be gained by the two wars, he now weighed the need of a period of peaceful development for his land. German prowess seemed irresistible, other nations trembled before her, yet Bismarck sought only peace. France was sullen and vengeful. Austria, however, was eager for reconciliation with her mighty neighbor; and the celebrated "Triple Alliance" was formed on the part of Austria, Germany, and Italy, by which each pledged itself to support the others, if they were attacked. This "Triple Alliance," first formed in 1879 and renewed in 1902, has been a chief factor in keeping peace in Europe for a quarter of a century.

Bismarck faced many difficulties at home. Perhaps the greatest was the struggle with the Catholic, or Clerical, party in the Reichstag. The Clericals insisted upon placing the interests of the Pope above those of the empire. The Chancellor attempted harsh, repressive measures, promulgated in May, 1873, and known as the May Laws. In the height of the struggle Bismarck referred to the old contest between the Emperor Henry IV. and Pope Gregory, and made his well-known declaration, "Whatever happens, *we* will not go to Canossa." Yet to Canossa he went, that is to say, he finally yielded almost everything the Clerical party demanded. It was perhaps the single defeat in the great statesman's career. The Clericals had a remarkably able leader, Dr. Windthorst, and oppression placed the Catholics in the light of an injured people. Their party in the Reichstag grew stronger, until it succeeded in blocking legislation almost entirely. Concessions followed upon each side, and finally, in 1887, the objectionable May Laws were repealed. The deep-seated difference of thought, however, will probably always remain between the Clericals and the empire; there seems no possibility of perfect agreement. The death of Windthorst in 1891 destroyed much of the power of his party. Yet of more recent years it has been upon their support united to that of Germany's conservative party that the government has mainly relied. These two parties have made up the parliamentary majority with which the imperial government has resisted the demands of the Liberals and Socialists.

Opposition to the government has slowly grown strong because of the imperial military policy. In the first moments of victory over France, the triumph which the enormous and costly military force had won was so vividly before the people's eyes that the Reichstag readily passed every army measure that the Emperor desired. Military supplies were voted for seven years, and then again for seven more, whence these bills were called "Septennats." The country, however, began to suffer under the heavy taxes. In 1886, when the Septennat came up for the third time, the Reichstag refused to pass it. Bismarck and Moltke made earnest and forceful appeals. Bismarck pointed out the persistent resolution of France to reconquer Alsace-Lorraine, saying: "The danger of bloodshed fully justifies this bill. The likelihood of war diminishes only as our military strength increases." Moltke said: "The world has learned now that we do not seek for conquest; but it must learn also that we intend to keep what we have gained."

In truth, however, Germany's military system, valuable as it proved in 1871, has now grown into a monster that threatens to devour its creators. Nay, more, it weighs like a deadly incubus upon all Europe. The lesson of the Franco-German war roused other governments to their dangers; they could have been crushed as readily as France; so they also hurried to increase

their armed strength. The inevitable result has followed. Europe resembles a vast camp of armed soldiers. The amount annually expended on munitions of war has grown to incalculable proportions. In Germany especially, every man, except in the case of a favored few, is obliged to give three years of his early manhood to military service and training. Many emigrate to foreign countries rather than submit to this. The ancient German individualism and defiance of restraint is thus displaying itself in a wholly new form.

Fanatical socialists, incensed in part at least by the German military system, thrice attempted the life of Emperor William during his later years. The most serious of these assaults was in 1878, when a man shot and severely wounded him in the face. For a time it was thought the aged Emperor could not recover, and a great wail of sorrow went up from all his people, such as was re-echoed when at last his venerable life was finally extinguished in 1888. Not perhaps since the time of Charlemagne has any death been so widely and sincerely regretted, not only in Germany but throughout the world.

The second sovereign of the new empire was William's only son. The Victor of Worth, the hero of Koeniggratz, the idol of the nation, Frederick I., "Unser Fritz," became Emperor. His rule lasted only a few months (March-June, 1888). He was dying of cancer in the throat even when he ascended the throne; and his reign, from which the German liberals and the peace party had once hoped so much, proved only the fleeting shadow of a death-bed. His sufferings were nobly borne, and his people mourned his end probably as deeply as they had his father's. William had been called the Ever-Victorious. Frederick, from his well-known aversion to war, was named the Peace-Emperor.

Frederick was succeeded by his eldest son, the present Emperor, William II., who was only twenty-nine when called to assume his tremendously responsible position. William II. has proved an emperor of very different calibre from either of his predecessors. They had been content to follow the political guidance of their great Chancellor Bismarck; but while young William had grown up as a friend and admirer of Bismarck, he was fully determined to govern by his own ideas and not by those of any other man. The now historical break between him and Bismarck was inevitable from the start. The aged Chancellor had always been a conservative, distrusting the new influences of this age of liberty, and he had been at heart what Frederick the Great had been, "a benevolent despot," determined to compel others to do what he thought best for them. The young Emperor was an optimist, believing in himself and in his people. He refused to countenance Bismarck's repressive measures. The Chancellor, to compel submission to his plans, tendered his resignation. The Emperor accepted it and Bismarck perforce

retired into private life. This happened within less than two years of William's ascent to the throne. Later, when he felt Bismarck's power was wholly lost, William sought a reconciliation with his old friend, and the last years of the great statesman's life were spent in a position of high honor. He was to Germans the living symbol of their victory and union, and his death in 1898, was made the occasion of a stupendous manifestation of national pride and patriotism. Perhaps no other statesman has ever wielded so tremendous an influence as he in shaping the destinies of Europe.

In the years of Bismarck's retirement, however, the active events of political life had swept rapidly beyond him. In foreign affairs Germany during the last quarter century has found herself in increasing isolation, strengthened only by the steady alliance between herself and the other great semi-German state, Austro-Hungary. At first William sought the friendship of England. Thus the English statesmen were allowed, unopposed, to assail the Boers in South Africa, though Emperor William personally felt eager to extend his protection to them, as to all far-off descendants of the German race. The death of Queen Victoria, who was William's grandmother, was also made by him an occasion of expressing his good feeling toward the English. Gradually, however, Germany's desire for colonial expansion has forced her into antagonism to the great colonizing nation. Colonial disputes united with Germany's resentment of what she considers English arrogance and her unwillingness to be "Britain's sword" upon the Continent have made her and England bitter toward each other. Indeed the greatest storm that the Emperor ever raised against himself at home broke in the autumn of 1908, when the *London Daily Telegraph* published an astounding interview in which the German Emperor claimed that his attitude had won the Boer war for England, and that he had befriended that country in other ways, yet that in return he was always met by Englishmen with ingratitude and suspicion. The Emperor was denounced everywhere for these indiscreet remarks, and resentment against him was so intense in his parliament that he humiliated himself to the extent of promising to say nothing thereafter except upon the advice of his Chancellor, Von Bülow. The bitterness against England mounted to a yet greater height in 1911, when England and France agreed that France should establish a "protectorate" over Morocco. Germany wanted a free field for trade in Morocco; she even sent a warship there to protect her interests. This involved her in a dispute with France, and England asserted that if the quarrel went too far she would intervene. Germany withdrew her claims; but the German people have remained almost equally resentful against their government, which almost involved them in war about this trifle, and against England, whose threat had thus put them to shame.

In most of her colonial plans, Germany has been more successful. As early as 1884, she joined in the great European scramble for lands in Africa and Asia. She possesses valuable African colonies, and after the Spanish-American war she purchased from Spain most of that country's remaining islands in the Pacific. In 1897 Germany secured an important foothold in China. The murder of two German missionaries was made an excuse for sending a large naval force to China under the Emperor's brother, Prince Henry. As an act of conciliation, the port and neighborhood of Kiau-Chau were leased to the offended power, and have become practically a German colony. When in 1900 the "Boxers" in China rose against foreigners, the German minister in Peking was slain, and Germany became a leader in the punitive measures of the powers. Count von Waldersee, the German commander, being the general of highest rank among the foreign forces in China, was appointed to command them all. The full account of the Chinese troubles belongs more properly, however, to the history of China.

The internal progress of Germany has been even more troublous than her path in international affairs. Nowhere in the world have the forces of conservatism and of progress struggled more desperately together. And Germany has to-day the largest and most influential "Socialist" party in the world. At first Emperor William, as a liberal, sought to favor his people, though even this aid was to be given as everything Prussian is "by the divine will" of the government, rather than as the right of the people. Germany has gone further than any other land in what is called "paternalism," that is, compelling people to be wise and prudent by law. For instance, a "compulsory insurance" law forces workmen to pay a portion of their wages for insurance under government control. Other similar protective measures won for William II. the title from his people of "the workingman's Emperor."

All these ideas tended toward socialism, but about 1894 the Emperor's attitude toward socialism began to change, as he found that notwithstanding his concessions, it remained resentful and vindictive against his government. But political economists tell us that German socialism cannot be crushed so long as German military oppression continues, that it is the natural outcome of militarism and must increase in proportion to the growth of its cause.

Indeed Socialists are probably in an actual majority in Germany, only the conditions of voting there have been so arranged by the conservatives as to prevent this majority from gaining control of the government. What was perhaps the beginning of the end came in 1911, when the forces of the government in parliament united for the first time with the Socialist members to arrange a new government for Alsace-Lorraine. After enduring forty years as a conquered province, Alsace-Lorraine was made a state of the Empire, like

the other states, though still partly under Prussian dominance. But the contrast between Alsace, which has thus been granted universal suffrage, and Prussia itself, where the poorer classes are almost wholly debarred from voting, has so aroused Prussian Socialists, that the few members they have been able to force into the Prussian parliament have made violent protests. In 1912 two of them were forcibly excluded from participation in the body to which they had been elected. Yet the general elections of 1912 throughout Germany gave the Socialists larger majorities than ever before.

Socialism or its forcible repression, military defiance of all Europe or loss of colonial opportunity, these are the two great problems confronting Germany to-day. In a speech at Strasburg in 1912 Emperor William warned the people of Alsace that if they did not make a more German and patriotic use of their franchise he would take it away again. And conservative Germans applauded him. Here is personal military rule by divine right in its most obvious expression. So, too, in a speech of 1911 the Chancellor of the Empire, Von Bethman-Hollweg, declared that he saw no value in disarmament or in arbitration, and that "the first requisite of peace is strength."

Yet on the other hand William II, has ruled Germany for over twenty-five years without a war. At the celebration of his twenty-fifth anniversary in June, 1913, even an antagonistic French newspaper declared that he deserved the noble title of "the Emperor of Peace." He himself addressed to an American delegation headed by Mr. Carnegie the hope that there would be another quarter century of peace. And Mr. Carnegie replied, "Your Majesty is the most powerful ally we have in that direction."





FREDERICK OF NUREMBERG TAKES POSSESSION OF BERLIN

CHRONOLOGY OF GERMANY



C. 700—Approximate date of the entry of the German tribes into Germany. **113**—The Cimbri and Teutones invade Italy and defeat the Roman armies. **102**—Teutones exterminated at Aquæ Sextiæ. **101**—Cimbri exterminated at Vercelli. **58**—Ariovistus defeated by Cæsar. **55**—Cæsar invades Germany. **12**—Drusus conquers much of Germany.

A.D. 9—Hermann defeats Varus and frees Germany. **16**—The Romans evacuate the land. **19**—Hermann overthrows Maroboduus. **166**—Wars of the Marcomanni against Rome. **250**—Beginning of Frankish invasions into Gaul. **350**—Magnentius, a German, proclaimed Emperor of Rome but defeated. **358–378**—Ulphilas preached Christianity among the Goths. **375**—Invasion of the Huns, forces the general movement of the German tribes into the empire of Rome. **410**—Alaric captures Rome. **451**—Defeat of the Huns at Chalons. **481**—Clovis becomes king of the Salic Franks. **486**—Wins northern Gaul by battle of Soissons. **496**—Defeats the Alemanni at

Zulpich and becomes a Christian. **500**—Chosen king by the East Franks in Germany. **507**—Conquers southern Gaul at Vienne. **511**—Death of Clovis. **575**—Murder of Siegbert, wars of Fredegonde and Brunhild. **613**—Death of Brunhild. **687**—Battle of Testri establishes the supremacy of East over West-Franks. **700**—Saint Boniface begins the conversion of Germany. **732**—Charles Martel overthrows the Arabs at Tours. **751**—The Merovingians deposed, Pepin the Short made king. **755**—Martyrdom of Saint Boniface by the

Frisians. 768—Charlemagne becomes king. 772—Begins the subjugation of the Saxons. 774—Conquers Lombardy. 785—Baptism of Wittekind. 800 (Dec. 25)—Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome, beginning of the "Holy Roman Empire."

804—End of the Saxon wars. 814—Death of Charlemagne. 843—Treaty of Verdun marks the separation of Germany from the balance of the empire. 891—Arnulf defeats the Norsemen at Loewen. 895—Captures Rome and is crowned Emperor. 899—Death of Arnulf and desolation of Germany. 911—Ludwig the Child defeated by the Hungarians. Threatened disruption of Germany. Conrad of Franconia elected king by the free choice of the Germans. 915—Conrad defeated by the Saxons at Merseburg. 918—The Saxon, Henry "the City-BUILDER," becomes king and reorganizes Germany. 928—Begins Christianizing the Wends; captures Brannibor; establishes knighthood. 933—Overthrows the Hungarians at Merseburg. 955—Otto the Great conquers the Hungarians at the Lech. 962—Otto the Great re-establishes the empire of Charlemagne as a purely German empire. 1000—The end of the world expected, consequent famines. 1003—Henry II. begins raising the power of the bishops. 1024—Death of Henry II., the last of the Saxon emperors; the Franconian line restored with Conrad II. 1032—Burgundy added to the German empire by Conrad. 1039-56—Henry III. begins extending the authority of the empire over Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary. 1043—The "Truce of God." 1046—Henry III. deposes the rival Popes at Sutri. 1056-1105—Disastrous reign of Henry IV. 1062—The child Henry IV. abducted. 1076—Henry IV. begins the long quarrel with the Popes. 1077—Submits to Pope Gregory at Canossa. 1080—Defeats his rival Rudolf of Swabia and establishes himself firmly on the throne. 1081-84—Revenge himself on the Pope by besieging and capturing Rome. 1096—The First Crusade. 1105—Revolt of the Emperor's son, Henry; the Emperor deposed. 1122—Henry V. makes peace with the Pope. 1125—Death of Henry V. and end of the Franconian line. 1138—Conrad of Hohenstaufen becomes Emperor; the wars of Welf and Waibling begin. 1152-90—Reign of Frederick Barbarossa. 1157—He begins his struggle with the Popes. 1162—He conquers and destroys Milan. 1176—Is defeated at Lignano by the Italian Welfs. 1183—Makes peace at Constance. 1189-90—Frederick heads a great crusade and dies in Asia. 1208—Murder of Philip of Swabia. 1212—Frederick II. leaves Sicily to win Germany. 1214—Otto IV. defeated by the French at Bouvines and Frederick II. acknowledged Emperor. 1227—Frederick begins his quarrel with the Popes. 1228—Heads a Crusade and is crowned King of Jerusalem. 1231—The "Teutonic Order" begins the conquest of heathen Prussia and founds the city of Thorn. 1237—Frederick II. defeats the Italian

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